

## 研究論文

## Sampling for All: An Inbound Approach to Travel Experience

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## Abstract :

Articles 7 and 8 of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism (GCET) respectively advocate for the universal right to tourism, and the freedom of tourist movements. While the application of these principles has become a reality in some parts of the globe, they nonetheless remain elusive in many others. When using samples made of respondents without ‘travel experience’, researchers are instinctively provided with feedback such as: *“as a tourism study, it is expected of participants to have travel experience”*. Apart from being implicated in the proliferation of issues such as climate change and overtourism, this mobility pre-requisite essentially implies a notion of accessibility which may as well suggest the systematic exclusion of samples drawn from economically or politically disenfranchised communities, thus raising a line of inquiry on what is implied by travel experience in tourism research. Against this background, literature related to variables such as co-creation, virtual reality, and globalization were reviewed, and the results support an Inbound Approach to Travel Experience (IATE). The IATE suggests that tourist experiences are not only co-created, they are also co-owned by tourists and local communities whom they have engaged with during their travel. As such, the present paper proposes a community-based argument for sample adequacy, through which issues related to inclusion and environmental sustainability can also be addressed. Limitations to the extant approach to travel experience are discussed in relation to globalization and technological development as a means to further echo the need for conceptual adjustments.

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### I . Introduction

In this era of globalization, Consumer Behavior research is faced with the challenging task of deciphering the mysteries behind international purchase behavior. As a traditional means to facilitate the accomplishment of such daunting tasks, social scientists have for long relied on the process of measurement, which consists of linking abstract concepts to empirical indicants (Zeller & Carmines, 1982). In tourist behavior (TB) research, the development of measurement constructs is equally as important. This is in part due to the imperative to figure out the array of abstract notions found along the processes captured in tourist behavior models. These may include for instance, personal involvement at the visitation stage (e.g., Prayag & Ryan, 2011); tourist satisfaction at the post-visitation stage (e.g., Assaker, Vinzi, & O’Connor, 2011); and in line with this study, destination image which can be quantified at pre- and post-visitation stages (e.g., Echtner & Ritchie, 2003). The subject matter tackled in this study relates to the issue of sample adequacy in view of the assumption that “foreign travel

experience” is an essential attribute when developing tourism-specific measures within the pre-visitation stage of the travel process (e.g., Boukamba, Oi, & Sano, 2020).

Assuming that within the tourist generating region (e.g., United States), you are conducting a qualitative survey informed by an inductive approach to item generation, for the development of a tourism-specific construct aiming to capture cultural biases that American tourists may hold towards local communities (e.g., Chinese residents). Provided below is a hypothetical transcript of the screening phase of this survey:

- Interviewer: *“Have you been to China in the past [...] years?”*
- Respondent (Mrs. Cartman): *“No, but I have been to Chinatown a few times, and I also have Chinese friends.”*

While the occurrence of such cases is bound to be more pronounced in today’s circumstances of time and space

compression (Dujmović & Vitasović, 2015; Massey, 1994; Harvey, 1990), procedures on how to treat them in tourism research remain constrained not only by demand-side oriented rigid definitions (e.g., UNWTO, 1993), but also by the traditional view of how travel is, or perhaps, should be experienced. Moreover, contemporary tourism challenges such as climate change (Higham, Cohen, Cavaliere, Reis, & Finkler 2016; Pang, McKercher, & Prideaux, 2013) and overtourism (Milano, Cheer, & Novelli, 2019) warrant a need for community-focused approaches in addition to de-marketing or degrowth strategies (Higgins-Desbiolles, Carnicelli, Krolkowski, Wijesinghe, & Boluk, 2019; Hall, 2009). For instance, the sample-intensive nature of quantitative research coupled with the mobility-bound conceptualization of travel experience implies that sample adequacy, (i.e., in terms of size and desired attributes which enable generalizability of results), shares a positive correlation with our contribution to the above challenges. As such, solely defining travel experience from a mobility perspective is destined to be an obstacle to social and environmental sustainability.

## II . A need to re-conceptualize travel experience

In view of limited resources, researchers have engaged in the process of selecting populations' subsets for the purpose of drawing conclusions about a larger set of observations (Rahi, 2017). Within the first stage of this sampling process, literature has highlighted the importance of choosing a sample that represents the desired attributes of the population that one wishes to study so that inferences derived from the sample can be generalized back to the population of interest (O'Dwyer & Bernauer, 2013). Hence, the inclusion of demographic reports has become one of the communication requirements of science when using human participants in scientific inquiries (American Psychological Association, 1994). Such mandatory practice of reporting on study participants' characteristics is observed in all fields of social science. In tourism research for instance, investigations relying on primary data collection (whether qualitative, quantitative, or hybrid), generally report on variables such as the age, gender, income, and level of education of respondents (e.g., Hermann, Coetzee, Geldenhuys, & Du Plessis, 2013; Oh, Cheng, Lehto, & O'Leary, 2004). Additionally, tourism-specific variables such as travel propensity and travel experience tend to be emphasized in TB studies (e.g., Boukamba, Oi, & Sano, 2020; Kock, Josiassen, Assaf, Karpen, & Farrelly, 2019). These variables are understood to play a critical role in the appraisal of a study's methodological design with respect to the representativeness of

desired population traits, thus affecting generalizability as well as delineating the context of application. Travel experience, which is of importance to the present study, is a subjective mental state felt by tourists (Otto & Ritchie, 1996) as a result of their engagement, involvement, perception, and participation in events, activities, or attractions at the destinations (Carù & Cova, 2007). At the pre-visitation stage of the travel process, this tourism-specific variable is considered a psychological pre-requisite which is implicitly hypothesized to shape behavior and decision-making (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998), hence often justifying its necessity in TB research. Beyond its methodological importance however, one can note a persistent form of contextual bias inherent to the field of inquiry, which is manifested in the acquiescent belief that conditions denoted by field-specific variables should be evident in most members of a study population.

Over the years, tourism scholars have clamored for a more comprehensive means of conceptualizing tourism because the interdisciplinary nature of the concept cannot deny disciplinary biases from most tourism definitions (Mason, 2015). This lack of consensus has extended to defining a tourist. The UNWTO provides the widely accepted definition of a tourist, which is often utilized for technical and statistical purposes (Ghanem, 2017). Arguing from Mason's (2015) perspective, Ghanem states that the UNWTO definition does not take cognizance of the multidisciplinary nature of tourism. Thus, apart from affecting many researches that are non-economical, technical or statistically oriented, it also appears that statistical definitions do not suffice in conceptualizing the tourist within different spheres of tourism (Ghanem, 2017). While such a lack of consensus is not alien to social sciences where tourism mainly belong (Moore, 1995), it equally gives opportunity for studies like this to emerge.

Similarly, tourism experience is a subjective phenomenon that can only be understood by the individual who engages or is engaged in travel to specific locations (Jennings, 2006). This includes unusual and created acts of consumption, which symbolize an antithesis to problems of 'ordinary life' with complex leisure activities (Li, 2000). Scholars concur that the tourist experience is an intricate psychological process (Quinlan-Cutler & Carmichael, 2010), whose essence has been scrutinized in literature, especially the notion that it must be different from daily or everyday life (Lash & Urry, 1994; Munt, 1994; Urry, 1990 cited in Uriely, 2005). For instance, experiences that were solely for tourism such as "enjoyment of gazing at distant sights and the pleasure of engaging in aspects of cultures are currently accessible in various contexts

of everyday life. In the era of mass media, for instance, attractions can be enjoyed via video and virtual reality displays within the comforts of one's home" (Uriely, 2005, p. 203). Therefore, one may question the assumption of neglecting study respondents who have experienced tourism through virtual means in a global world. Besides, scholars have argued from the perspectives of the performance turn in tourism (e.g., Larsen, 2007; Edensor, 2001), and mobility studies (e.g., Sheller & Urry, 2006) that defining tourism by distance and travel from the generating region to the destination is limited. Yet, it appears that methodological implications with regards to sampling still remain unaddressed. As such, in view of the current technological development, must one really travel before he/she can be said to have had tourist experience?

The study at hand is an attempt to highlight the need for an Inbound Approach to Travel Experience (IATE) which is a probable path for future studies in tourism due to globalization, technological advancement (i.e., virtual reality), the inherent progress as well as the exclusion and mobility-related challenges encountered in the social world which affects participation in tourism. Therefore, the need to re-conceptualize the tourist experience is germane, especially from the IATE perspective.

### III . Validity concerns: travel experience or tourist experience?

Tourism is generally defined as the "activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes" not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited (UNWTO, 1993, p. 5). Within this definition, geographers have suggested the use of spatial, temporal, and travel purpose dimensions to delineate tourism from other types of mobility (Hall, 2008; Hall & Page, 2006). As such, when engaging the distinction between travel and tourism, one tends to simply indicate that: all tourists are travelers, but not all travelers are tourists, thus implying that travel (i.e., geographical mobility) is an essential part of tourism (Vanhove, 2012). In tourism research however, one can observe that the concepts of travel experience and tourist experience do not appear to be used with the same consistency. For instance, the justification of sample adequacy in tourism studies is often supported by frequency tables displaying a Foreign Travel Experience (FTE) ratio often measured by a dichotomous single-item construct such as: *have you traveled to a foreign country within the past [...] years?*. While the focus of this observation relates to the use of

a single-item measurement, it should however be noted that the core of the argument lies in the content validity rather than the reliability of the single-item measure.

Validity is the extent to which a concept is accurately measured (Heale & Twycross, 2015). Reliability, on the other hand, refers to the degree to which measurement of individuals on different occasions, or by different observers or by similar or parallel tests, produce the same or similar results (Streiner & Norman, 1995, p. 6). As such, validity essentially reflects accuracy, whereas reliability denotes consistency and replicability over time. Content validity, which is of interest to the current argument, is the extent to which an instrument accurately measures all aspects of a given construct (Heale & Twycross, 2015). Within the context of the present study, these aspects would allude to travel purpose, spatial, and temporal dimensions of tourism (Hall, 2008). Hence, while the above-exemplified dichotomous single-item construct appears to be a valid (and perhaps a reliable) measure for travel experience, it however lacks content validity when contextualized in tourism. That is because mere past engagements in travel cannot fully capture the conceptual domain of tourism. Consequently, it can further be noted that studies samples which screen participants using such a question are made of travelers (e.g., soldiers, performers, or working holidaymakers), whom by conceptual delineation, may fall outside the scope of the intended field-specific study targets (i.e., the tourists).

Tourism is more than mere human mobility across land, air, or sea (Vanhove, 2012). Studies focusing on 'encounter' (e.g., Crouch, Aronsson, Wahlström, 2001; Gibson, 2009) tend to support this thesis through their appreciation of the manner in which tourism catalyzes entanglements of people, places and identities. As such, Jafari (1977) points out that tourism is a socio-cultural consumption phenomenon whose processes involve human mobility across geographical and cultural boundaries. Literature identifies a range of processes which take place within tourist behavior models (i.e., anticipation or pre-purchase; travel to the site segment; on-site experience; return travel component; and an extended recall and recollection stage; Pearce, 2005), which are derived from the three stages found in consumer behavior models, namely the pre-purchase, the consumption, and the post-consumption stage (e.g., Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1995; Tsiotsou, & Wirtz, 2012). Within this framework, the tourist experience is considered to be retrospective (Larsen, 2007; Gram, 2005) and on-site specific (Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003; Jennings, 2006), hence positioning its occurrence within the consumption and the post-consumption stages. For instance,

Highmore (2002) points two different states when referring to the word 'experience'. These include the moment by moment lived experience (*Erlebnis*), and the evaluated experience (*Erfahrung*) which is subject to reflection and prescribed meaning (cited by Quinlan-Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). The latter, (evaluated experience), accounts for much literature on tourism experience, where experiences are theorized to be internalized by the person who is engaged with an event on an emotional, physical, spiritual, or intellectual level (Pine & Gilmore, 1999), thus leaving these individuals with memorable impressions (Gram, 2005).

Similarly, tourism literature defining travel experience also draws attention to three components that are on-site specific (i.e., requiring travel to the destination). These include the tourist's physical presence at the destination, exposure, and interaction (Khoo-Lattimore & Ekiz, 2014; Carù & Cova, 2007; Kim & Brown, 2012). The tourist's presence at the destination, as implied by the UNWTO (1993) definition, results from the temporary movement that one undertakes outside her/his usual environment to the destination region. Exposure entails a degree of immersion (e.g., in the local culture) which is destination-bound, given that it is contextualized to occur outside the home environment (Buddhabhumbhita, 2010). Interaction, on the other hand, alludes to a form of contact which, in line with the scope of this paper, denotes a cross-cultural aspect of tourism which is conditioned by the presence of the tourist, the local community, and other destination elements (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2015). In view of the above, two observations can be made: (1) the emphasis on the travel-bound nature of tourist experiences explains the lack of content validity in view of the widespread use of travel-specific screening questions (see above example); and (2) the use of such tourist-centric approach has led to the widely accepted misconception that samples drawn from local communities lack face validity if the selected members have no travel experience.

#### IV . Elements of the Inbound Approach to Travel Experiences

While factors such as technological development and globalization are viewed as contributors to faster and more inclusive participation in tourism (Lynch, Duinker, Sheehan, & Chute, 2010), their contribution towards novel forms of engagement in tourism should not be overlooked in the re-evaluation of foreign travel experience. This section discusses the components of an IATE framework in line with novel academic debates, social and technological developments that call for its implementation.

#### 1 . Consciousness

The International Dictionary of Psychology describes consciousness as the having of perceptions, thoughts, and feelings; awareness (Sutherland, 1989). The body is an object of crucial importance in the consumer culture and its supplies industries (Hargreaves, 1986). Accordingly, tourism as an industry strongly upholds the body as central to its purpose and consumption. Critical approaches in tourism studies focusing on "embodiment" have also recognized that the lived tourist experience is indeed a bodily experience, firstly being a corporal experience of the senses, organs and emotions; and secondly being a social synthesis of images, values, and worth (Small & Darcy, 2011; Urry, 1990). Within this context, sensory organs (i.e., sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touch) would act as input devices used to capture the external stimuli within the destination environment (Classen, 1997); the brain would process the information; and the physical body would provide the output in form of interaction, which is subsequently absorbed by local communities, processed, and expressed in form of reaction. This process solidifies the implicit role of consciousness in the context of experiences (Chalmers, 1996).

Novel debates on suicide travel (Yu, Wen, Goh, & Aston, 2019) have alluded to the importance of consciousness in tourism. Although Huxtable (2009) has earlier differentiated between suicide tourism and assisted-suicide tourism, the cardinal point of his differentiation was to encourage a debate on the concept. The ensuing need to conceptualize suicide tourism has generated a lot of controversies (Tyrała & Batorski, 2013) and more for the discussion on assisted-suicide tourism (see Higginbotham, 2011). For instance, an academic discussion related to assisted suicide was raised on the Tourism Research Information Network (TRINET<sup>1</sup>) in June 2019 by Professor Metin Kozak, on behalf of the then soon-to-be authors (see Yu et al., 2019). The initial inquest sought tourism scholars' input on whether we "can academically recognize suicide tourism as a new form/type of tourism activity". Apart from ethical reasons immediately evoked by many, some experts rejected the notion of "suicide tourism" on the basis that tourism cannot exist without life. Hence, arguing that such individuals should instead be classified as suicide travelers, rather than suicide tourists. To integrate this argument in the current analogy, one can extrapolate the above presumption by indicating that in the case of suicide tourists, the extended recall and recollection of experiences during the post-consumption stage (see Pearce, 2005) would not occur as due to the absence of consciousness. Therefore, the one-way nature of such trips would render the tourism consumption process

incomplete, hence validating the position of centrality that consciousness occupies in the tourism consumption process. However, from a tourism statistics point of view, Professor Jafari rejected the implied argument pertaining to the one-way nature of such trips. He contended that such individuals are already included and counted when reaching the destination as international arrivals. At the end of the year, the receiving country would report its arrival volume to the UNWTO. Moreover, he remarked that “the definition of the UNWTO doesn’t state the mind/body of the traveler is considered”.

From the diverging views evoked in that debate, it is still possible to note that both arguments nevertheless seem to recognize that consciousness is an essential requirement for at least the first part of the trip, in order to satisfy statistical requirements and [perhaps] ensure the economic relevance of tourism as an industry. However, when considering tourism as a field of study in behavioral science, consciousness needs to be maintained to allow recollection of past experiences and future changes in behavior to take place.

## 2. Imported tourist experiences

Technological advancements also call for reassessment on the view of physical mobility in travel experience. For instance, the multidimensional concept of audience involvement which originated from the field of media studies identifies emotional, cognitive, behavioral, critical, and referential dimensions as part of the audience’s active viewing experience (Kim & Assaker, 2014; Kim, 2011). As pointed out by St-James, Darveau, and Fortin (2018), this conceptualization builds on the notion of para-social interaction (PSI). Horton and Wohl (1956) define PSI as the imaginary sense of intimacy an individual audience member develops with a media figure. This essentially denotes the consumer’s response to the embedded marketing stimuli packaged in media forms (e.g., films, social networking sites, and even gaming software). Studies found audience involvement to impact destination image (Yen & Croy, 2016), as it may lead to a sense of connection and intimacy with characters, stories, and the places portrayed (Kim, 2010; 2011).

The field of application of PSI can further be extended with the use of virtual reality technology (VR) as it implies a deeper involvement when the participant transitions from being a “passive viewer”, to a state of “active participant”. VR is a technology that permits a user to interact, experience, feel or touch a computer-simulated environment which can also be called a virtual environment. These can be replications of the real world or an imaginary one in the past, present or

future (Qadri, Hussain, Jawed, & Iftikhar, 2019; Guttentag, 2010). VR is gradually gaining ground in tourism (Pantelidis, Diek, Jung, & Miller, 2018). Its application has the potential to enhance hassle-free holidays, especially overcoming problems associated with conventional holidays such as access to closed destinations, rejected VISA applications, and inaccessible sites like the depths of Amazon jungle or the frozen wastes of the Antarctic. VR also presents an opportunity for disabled tourists as it brings the travel experience to those who find it inconvenient to travel because of physical handicaps or debilitating illness (Rahman & Bhowal, 2017). Moreover, Wagler and Hanus (2018) added that VR can enhance tourists to enjoy a fulfilling, engaging experience from their comfort zones (locations of their choice), with 360-degree video tourism being a strong analog to a real-world experience. For instance, residents in Ikebukuro (Tokyo) can experience an hour-long flight to Rome through VR experience. These postulations give credence to the main argument of the present paper, which is that tourism experience can be gathered without necessarily going to the destination. Nevertheless, VR may not replace reality because age, sex, education, income (Cheong, 1995) and other variables may determine selection criteria. Yet, the point under discussion is that people can have tourism experiences without any form of movement in real life (i.e., performing travel on-site). As such, do we say that a South African resident who enjoyed a VR experience of Wakayama Castle has no experience of such a place?

Support for the argument towards the IATE can also be found in the Environmental Bubble Theory (Cohen, 1972) and literature concerning tourism impacts on destinations (Pizam, 1978; Ap, 1992; Carvalho, Ribeiro, & Peter, 2020). The cross-cultural nature of tourism implies the traveler’s involvement with the worlds, values, and lives of those inhabiting other cultures (Rojek & Urry, 1997). Reciprocally, tourism also exposes host environments to a wide range of impacts resulting from the values and behavioral modes that tourists carry - cultural baggage (Jafari, 1987). When temporarily sojourning away from their home environments, tourists resort to a sort of social layer which is activated to immunize them from identity or cultural attacks implied by visiting a foreign country (Cortini & Converso, 2018). This environmental bubble is used as a risk-avoidance strategy for those wishing to remain anchored to their residential spots (Cohen, 1972; Pearce, 1981; Furnham, 1984). While the environmental bubble is mainly defined for its protective role towards the tourists, the term cultural baggage has instead been used in impacts studies focusing on destinations, in recognition of the socio-cultural, economic,



and environmental footprint left by tourists on destinations and local communities (Jafari, 1987). For instance, demonstration effect (Fisher, 2004; Moore, 1995; Monterrubio & Mendoza-Ontiveros, 2014), conspicuous consumption (Sharpley, 2018; Murphy, 1985); host and guest antagonism (Doxey, 1975), overtourism and carrying capacity (Milano, Cheer, & Novelli, 2019; O'Reilly, 1986). This body of literature implies that host communities do experience foreign cultures within their home environments and develop behavioral responses towards tourists. Therefore, the validity of the geographically-defined FTE sample selection criteria in TB studies is hereby interrogated.

Globalization is another factor that exposes the limitations of the concept of geographical distance in travel. It is viewed as a phenomenon that has impacted nearly every aspect of modern-day behavior, from organizational down to the individual level (Suárez-Orozco & Qin-Hilliard, 2004). Globalization is generally described as a set of processes by which people are integrated into a single world society (Albrow & King, 1990). Trade liberalization and increased human mobility in the form of immigration are among its numerous consequences (Benton-Short, Price, & Friedman, 2005; Stalker, 2000). The latter, which is of importance to the current discussion, has transformed the cultural landscape of urban spaces around the world. For instance, one can experience the Central and West-African lifestyles in the neighborhood of Sunnyside, located in Pretoria (South Africa); the San Francisco Chinatown which has been influencing the local culture since its establishment in 1848 (Berglund, 2005); or the Kensington Market, which is a multicultural neighborhood in Toronto (Canada) whose experience has been described as 'a sensory trip around the world' (City of Toronto, 2019). These re-created places provide a range of 'destination' elements (e.g., food, music, language, temples, and festivals), through which locals can be immersed and interact with foreign cultures within their home environments. In view of the aforementioned, would it be justifiable to exclude "Mrs. Cartman" from your survey? Interrogations of this nature will enrich tourism literature and redirect practitioners to re-conceptualize the use of 'tourism experience' in selecting tourism research respondents.

## V . Inbound Approaches to Travel Experience framework

It appears that the widespread understanding of travel experience is mainly based on an outbound approach to tourism. Outbound tourists (or outgoing tourists) refer to residents of a given country traveling to and staying in places

outside their country of residence for tourism purposes. This would, for instance, include Japanese residents traveling to Gabon for holidays. Inbound tourists (or incoming tourists) on the other hand denote non-residents traveling in the given country (Dale, 2005). Along the same example, this would include Gabonese citizens coming to Japan for holidays. When contextualizing both approaches within Leiper's (1979) geographical model of the tourism system, one could observe that the location of the lexicographer tends to change according to each definition. For instance, when using the outbound definition, the lexicographer appears to define the tourism phenomenon from the generating region (*i.e., going to...*). However, when the definition is switched to inbound, the definer's location appears to be changed to the destination region (*i.e., coming to...*), where the tourist experience is set to occur. Within this conceptual analogy, it is important to notice that each variation of perspectives within the geographical system carries its own conceptual implications on how experiences should be viewed. That is, the tourist (as the main actor) is viewed as one who "goes to" a destination, acquires experiences through exposure and interaction, then returns to the point of origin where behavior-shaping recollection would occur. I stress however that a conceptual imbalance would become evident if one were to overlook the notion that tourist experiences are co-created. Co-creation in tourism (Laing, Wheeler, Reeves, & Frost, 2014; Su, Bramwell, & Whalley, 2018) alludes to the inseparability characteristic of the tourism product, through the interrelated activities and interactions that connect the tourist and other actors before the travel, during their stay at the destination, and/or after the travel (Campos, Mendes, Valle, & Scott, 2015). Accordingly, it can be argued from the IATE perspective (*i.e., community-based standpoint*) that: as tourists "come to" a destination, they become present in the local community's home environment. As such, these tourists become a tourism commodity denoted as "imported tourism experience", which is exposed and interacts with the destination environment (e.g., local communities, culture, and other elements). Yet, besides the memories that are taken back to the originating region, there are also those recollections that remain within the "consciousness" of local communities and their physical environments. These constitute potential triggers of subjective states which can "influence behavior" (e.g., Chen, Hsu, & Li, 2018). Hence, it can be added that tourist experiences are not only co-created, they are also co-owned by tourists and local communities whom they engaged with during their travel. Co-creation and co-ownership of tourist experiences are set to play a central role in the IATE

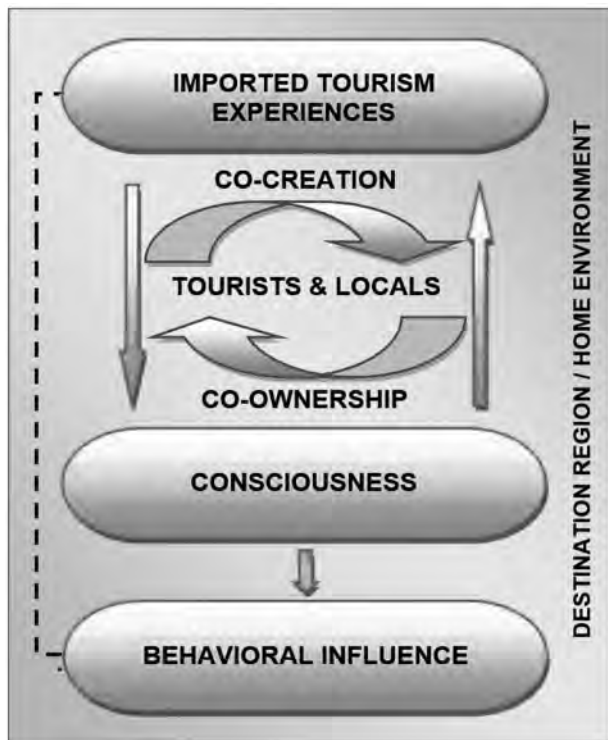


Figure 1: An Inbound Approach to Travel Experience framework

Source: Developed by the author

framework, along with basic components such as imported tourism experiences, consciousness, and behavioral influence. While co-creation does imply the involvement of locals in the creation of tourist experiences, co-ownership instead symbolizes the cognitive embedment of cross-cultural experiences taking place within one's destination, which is also another's home environment. These subjective mental states acquired by residents at 'their pre-visitation' stage also constitute a psychological landscape which, much like the conventional view on FTE (see Sönmez & Graefe, 1998), can be implicitly hypothesized to shape their future behavior and decision-making. This subsequently justifies the representative nature of the voices of "every Mrs. Cartman" in terms of the desired population traits in such tourist behavior studies. In Figure 1 above, an illustration of the IATE framework is provided.

## VI. Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to conduct a conceptual analysis of the current approach to travel experience in order to provide, through the IATE, a community-based argument which justifies the inclusion of respondents who fall beyond the scope of outbound travelers when developing psychometric measures at the pre-visitation stage of the travel process.

Literature on measurement constructs development highlights the importance of including the voices of experts in the initial stage of scale development (Churchill, 1979; Hinkin, 1995). Such experts, in line with sampling requirements (see O'Dwyer & Bernauer, 2013), are hypothesized to possess attributes of interest to researchers (i.e., foreign travel experience). In tourism research however, deciding on who should be considered "expert" has traditionally remained in favor of the tourist. The word 'expert' is derived from Latin *expertus* (i.e., contracted from *experitus*). The prefix *ex-* 'out of' + *peritus* 'experienced or tested'. This implies that the term 'expert' should not only be thought of in the sense of the observer (i.e., tourists as experiencers), but also in the sense of the participant (i.e., local community as co-creator and co-owner of the tourist experience). In line with the scope of this study, it can be noted that such an outbound approach to consider as experts only those who have previously been tourists may have resulted from the tendency to predominantly define tourism from the point of view of the tourist (i.e., demand-side approach). This geographically-defined FTE sample selection criteria has not only ignored the voices of local communities, but has also dictated the choices of data collection sites, and thus potentially skewing the current outlook of tourist behavior knowledge to the benefits of those who have had the privilege of travelling. As such, the present study stands to make a contribution to the debate on social inclusion and representation in tourism research from a methodological point of view.

As globalization and technological development continue to thrive, it is important for tourism concepts and methodological practices to not only evolve with them, but to also adapt with novel challenges. Accordingly, the tourism academia is urged to embrace such changes not only from a practical point of view (e.g., the use of robots in the hospitality sector) but also from a theoretical standpoint which includes the implications that these development place upon the current understanding of travel experience and scale development practices. For instance, the IATE can advocate for the veracity of findings obtained from students and perhaps children samples, which have for long been subjected to much scrutiny in tourism academia (see Dallari & Mariotti, 2016). With relevance to global health and environmental concerns which increasingly threaten tourist mobility, the IATE also stands to make a timely contribution which advocates for the application of sustainable tourism principles within sampling practices.

A potential limitation to the proposed approach can result from the variation in population attributes which may be

of interest to TB researchers along different stages of the travel process. As such, it can be noted that the position of one's study within the travel process may dictate the efficacy of the IATE argument. While the proposed IATE is ideal for studies that are conducted at the pre-visitation stage (e.g., destination image), its applicability can still be debatable for post-visitation studies (e.g., focusing on trip quality, tourist satisfaction, intention to recommend). At the visitation stage however (e.g., personal involvement), the IATE may not be as relevant for TB scale development studies. Regardless, the need to re-conceptualize what constitutes tourism experience appears inevitable. Hence, as tourism grows in theory and practice in the near future, the IATE holds a lot of academic inquiries that will be beneficial to tourism stakeholders.

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### Note

1. TRINET is an email distribution list that connects members of the international tourism research and education community

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